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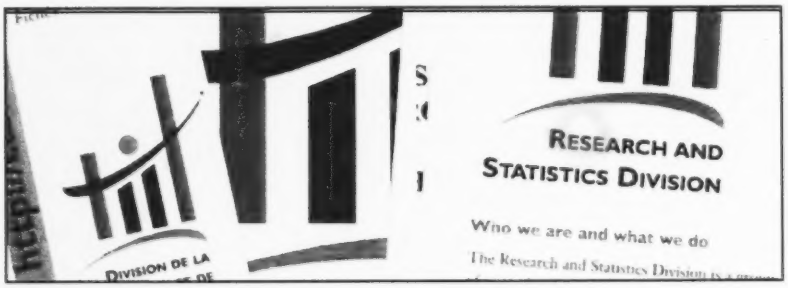

Welcome

Welcome to the fall issue of *JustResearch*! We hope you enjoy the new look of our publication. The Department of Justice recently developed guidelines for the look and feel of its products - to present information in a clear, consistent way that makes it easy to read, understand and identify. While *JustResearch* may now look somewhat different, the content continues to be of high quality.

We received some very encouraging feedback on the profiles of recent research both from within the Research and Statistics Division and from Canadian academia. We will be continuing these features - enjoy!

In this Issue

This issue of *JustResearch* includes reviews on a wide range of topics including family violence, young offenders, social cohesion, restorative justice, firearms, and organized crime. In our Research in Profile Section, we have chosen to profile research on victimization and fear of crime. We feature recent research from Professor Bernard Schissel of the University of Saskatchewan. His work explores victimization and immigrant children and youth. The second article profiles work on fear of crime and victimization by Nathalie Quann and Kwing Hung of the Research and Statistics Division.

Contents

Contributors 2
Upcoming Conferences 2
Connexions 2
Reviews 3
Family Violence 3
Social Cohesion and Victimization 4
Fear of Crime 5
Licensing the Sex Trade? 6
Reducing Recidivism through Restorative Justice 8
Profiling Young Offenders 9
Firearms Research 12
Judicial Review 13
Spousal Assault in Canada 15
Organized Crime and Confiscation Laws 16
Child Maltreatment Prevention 17
Research in Profile 19
The Impact of Victimization on the Well-Being of Immigrant Children and Youth 19
Victimization Experience and the Fear of Crime: A Cross-National Study 23
Current & Upcoming Research From the Research and Statistics Division 26
Current & Upcoming Research From Around Government 30
Contact Us 33

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Feedback

We invite your comments and suggestions for future issues of *JustResearch*. We welcome your ideas for articles, themes, topics or issues to examine from the literature and are happy to include information on any relevant and interesting research work undertaken in other Departments.

We may be contacted at rsd.drs@justice.gc.ca

Upcoming Conferences

The 53rd Annual Meeting of the American Society of Criminology
November 7 - 10, 2001, Atlanta, Georgia, USA
Theme: The measurement and detection of crime, legislation and practice of criminal law, as well as law enforcement, judicial and correctional systems. http://www.asc41.com

The Second World Congress Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children
December 17-20, 2001, Yokohama, Japan
Theme: NGOs in partnership with the government of Japan to enhance political commitment against sexual exploitation of children. http://www.focalpointngo.org/Global/English/2wc.htm

Connexions

National Criminal Justice Reference Service
This site serves as a vital gateway to many interesting research studies as well as statistical analysis on numerous criminal activities. NCJRS highlights monthly controversial subjects such as hate crime and juvenile delinquency, and is a leader in notifying the public on up to date events. http://www.ncjrs.org/statwww.html

Child & Family Web Guide
Created by faculty in the Eliot-Pearson Department of Child Development at Tufts University, in collaboration with academic librarians at Tufts' Tisch Library and the Society for Research in Child Development, the Web Guide identifies, describes and evaluates web sites that contain the most credible information available on a given topic. http://www.cfw.tufts.edu/

Legal Services Commission
The United Kingdom's Legal Services Commission is an executive non-departmental public body created under the Access to Justice Act 1999 to replace the UK Legal Aid Board. Their web site offers legal advice and requested civil representation to online visitors. In following up with the Commission's mandate, this site features strong research and statistical studies on where there are unmet needs in the justice system.
http://www.legalservices.gov.uk/

Reviews

FAMILY VIOLENCE

Avakame, Edem F. & Fyfe, James J. (2001). **Differential of male-on-female spousal violence: Additional evidence on the leniency thesis.** *Violence Against Women,* 7(1), 22-45.

Reviewer:
Tina Hattem, Senior Research Officer

Given the historical reluctance of the criminal justice system to intervene in cases of domestic violence, a significant number of jurisdictions in the United States have enacted legislation mandating arrest in these cases. However, the extent to which legislative requirements are followed by police officers is relatively unknown. This article tests a central assumption of the so-called leniency thesis; namely that police are more reluctant to arrest men who assault their spouses than they are to arrest men who assault other parties.

Using national level data[1] , Avakame and Fyfe estimate the relative probability of arrest for spousal assault, taking into consideration a range of situational, demographic, and socio-economic variables that previous research has identified as influencing police officers' decisions to arrest.

A simple comparison of the probability of arrest for spousal and non-spousal assault cases showed that police officers made arrests in 14.5% of non-spousal attacks versus 19.3% of spousal attacks, apparently contradicting the leniency thesis. However, empirical support for the thesis became manifest when the authors controlled for the victims' and victimizers' age and race, weapon use, victim injury, drug or alcohol intoxication, family income, and urban/suburban location.

The study also suggests that the probability of arrest for male on female spousal assault increases with the age of victims and perpetrators. Arrest is also more likely if the woman is White, if the assailant is African American, if the assailant appears to be under the influence of drugs or alcohol, or when weapons are involved. As well, police are more likely to arrest attackers of wealthier women, or if the woman is visibly injured. Finally, they are more likely to arrest men who assault their spouse in suburban and rural locations as opposed to the centre of cities.

Overall, the research findings suggest that line officers are more likely to arrest if the abused woman is a wealthy, White, older, suburban female. Conversely, they are less likely to arrest if the woman is young, Black, poor, and residing in an inner city.

Avakame and Fyfe's findings constitute yet another illustration of the possible gap between policy direction and implementation. In the authors' words, there is a definite "cleavage between announced criminal justice policies and their real world execution". They suggest further analysis of national level data to better understand the factors that influeence police decisions to arrest men who assault their age between announced criminal justice policies and their real world execution". They suggest further analysis of national level data to better understand the factors that influence police decisions to arrest men who assault their current or former spouses. However, as they acknowledge, the database conceals great differences among the 20,000 or more police jurisdictions included in the data file. From a policy implementation and monitoring perspective, it would be crucial to further explore the extent to which mandatory charging policies are enforced at a local and/or regional level.

The processing of domestic assault cases is also determined, at least in part, by the beliefs and attitudes of criminal justice system players. Accordingly, more in-depth, qualitative exploration of the beliefs and attitudes of line officers with respect to women generally, and wife assault in particular, is required. As Avakame and Fyfe point out, police departments are "often accused of being among the last bastions of patriarchal ideology".

Finally, one cannot assume that more systematic enforcement of mandatory charging laws alone will alleviate the problem of domestic violence. Whatever the extent to which charging requirements are met by line officers, the question remains as to the effectiveness of the criminal justice system and the adversarial process in dealing with cases of spousal assault. Indeed, abused women who have been in contact with the police or courts as victims or witnesses describe

[1] Data for the study were drawn from the 1992 through 1994 National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) conducted in the United States. Beyond a simple count of victimizations, the NCVS gathers details on incidents themselves, insofar as victims report them.

many aspects of the criminal justice process as a form of re-victimisation (Hattem, 2000). Therefore, it is imperative to continue to involve survivors in research and evaluation to inform policy development and implementation.

Such research would also be useful in Canadian jurisdictions that have enacted mandatory charging policies in order to determine the extent to which they are achieving their intended objectives, as well as to identify and address any unintended, negative consequences of such legislative initiatives.

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SOCIAL COHESION AND VICTIMIZATION

Lee, Mathew. (2000). **Community cohesion and violent predatory victimization: A theoretical extension and cross-national test of opportunity theory.** *Social Forces.* 79(2), 638-688.

Reviewer:
Valerie Howe, Senior Research Officer

In contributing to the developing literature on social cohesion and its role in communities, Lee draws upon years of research on the community characteristics associated with crime and victimization, particularly opportunity related factors. In addition, he tests his ideas with the cross-national sample of 19,000 respondents to the International Crime and Victimization Survey (ICVS).

The ICVS asks individuals about their criminal victimization, as well as personal and neighbourhood characteristics. Co-ordinated internationally by the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI), the survey has been conducted four times since 1989. Canada's participation in all four cycles was co-ordinated by the Research and Statistics Division. As Lee notes, it is only with this level of systematic and rigorous cross-national testing that you can address the difficult questions about a theory's ability to explain causality.

While the survey's history and large cross-national sample are major advantages, it is unfortunate that the testing of social cohesion theory relies on only one question. Although that question does capture the essence of social cohesion well, the validity of the causal claim would be enhanced if there were more questions and, ideally, a social cohesion scale. The survey asks: "Now I would like to ask you some questions about your area and about your opinion of crime in your area. In some areas people do things together and try to help each other, while in other areas people mostly go their own way. In general, what kind of area would you say you live in. Is it one where people mostly help each other, or where people mostly go their own way?" The response options are: 1. mostly help each other, or 2. mostly go their own way.

Lee relies upon the theory of guardianship to hypothesize that communities which inhabitants perceive as being cohesive - where people help each other rather than going their own way - should present fewer opportunities for crime because they have higher levels of guardianship. This places the study within an extensive history of studies demonstrating that criminal victimization is more likely for younger people, the unmarried, males, and the economically disadvantaged, as well as for those who live in communities with busy public places and poor socio-economic conditions. As Lee notes, social disorganization theory has established that local network strength and density helps explain neighbourhood differences in offending patterns or crime rates. A related line of theory argues that social bonds and length of residence in a community are mediating factors encouraging the community cohesion that fosters the tendency to pursue, in common, collective goals such as community safety. Robert Sampson et al. (1997) have been pivotal in linking this line of argument to opportunity theory in criminology by illustrating that these relationships of mutual care are key to guardianship. Unfortunately for the goal of theoretical development, however, Sampson uses the term "collective efficacy" instead of social cohesion to describe this orientation.

Lee's results support Sampson's in illustrating a strong and independent impact of social cohesion or collective efficacy on the likelihood of being a victim. This is separate from other neighbourhood and individual characteristics, including city size and the neighbourhood's social status. Moreover, the effect is substantial, accounting for between 40% and 50% of the difference in the likelihood of being a victim of serious crime (robbery or assault).

There remains, however, some lack of clarity as to the theoretical explanation for that connection. Is the key

concept social cohesion, collective efficacy, or some other concept? Social capital, another related concept that reflects belonging to social groups, clubs and organizations, has also been found to have an impact on the ability of people to work together to promote collective goals such as safety. Some studies combine indicators of interaction and friendships with the extent of organizational membership.

Lee makes the valuable point that people may have personal ties that do not lead to collective action. Social cohesion, then, may entail both these inter-personal connections, whether informal or formal, and, beyond that, the capacity for collective action, mutual help, and responsibility. The necessary, but not sufficient, requirement for coming together may be objective conditions within a community or nation, such as spaces for coming together and positive laws and policies. These would be policies that promote inclusion and tolerance as well as other "social infrastructure", such as the equitable provision of health and education. The focus on efficacy, as well as participation and access, links this body of ideas with those of community health, capacity building and social development. Social cohesion theory is moving in the direction of recognizing that bonds and relationships are pivotal, but not sufficient, and that the ability to work together to resolve tensions and respond to challenges is of central interest. Lee's finding that communities where people "mostly help each other" have half the victimization as those where they "mostly go their own way" highlights the importance of collective efficacy as a key element of social cohesion.

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FEAR OF CRIME

Evans, D. J. & Fletcher, M. (2000). **Fear of crime: Testing alternative hypotheses.** *Applied Geography*, 20, 395-411.

Reviewer:
Chi Nguyen, Research Analyst

To better understand strategies and policies to reduce crime in the United Kingdom, Evans and Fletcher explored the relationship between fear of crime, geographical location, and social status within Stoke-on-Trent in the English Midlands. The concept of fear of crime was defined as an anticipatory fear of being at risk. The geographical locations (characterized as low, medium and high risk) were selected based on their crime rates for burglary, vehicle-related crime and robbery/theft from the person. The social status of respondents included gender, age, employment and marital status, ethnic origins, housing tenure, and housing quality.

Using a face-to-face interview method, researchers questioned a sample of 340 respondents. To measure the general level of fear, respondents were asked to rate "How safe do you feel walking alone in this area after dark?" as well as "How safe do you feel alone in your home at night?" To better assess their perceptions of a threat and their abilities to cope with that threat, respondents were asked the following questions: "How worried are you about having your home broken into and something stolen?" and "How worried are you about being mugged and robbed?" Spearman's rank correlation and two-way analysis of variance were used in testing for statistical association.

Respondents in the medium-risk area were found to be more fearful and worried about their safety compared to respondents in the high-risk area. The higher level of fear in the medium-risk area was associated with a larger sample of older respondents compared to the high or low-risk areas. The low-risk area respondents were more worried about being victimized rather than fearful of crime in general. Respondents who were sick or disabled, housewives, and retired people tended to report higher levels of fear. These relationships were also found in a Harris and Jensen

(1998) study. As well, that study found a high correlation between fear of crime and age, gender, family income and education.

Based on the results of this study, the authors have identified two potential causes of fear of crime: a) the perception of one's ability to cope with the consequences of general crime; and, b) the perception of one's ability to protect oneself. Residential burglary and robbery were identified as offences that evoked the most fear. Further, if respondents perceived that the community was changing for the worse, their levels of fear of crime would likely be higher. Interestingly, there were no significant relationships between fear of crime and victimization rates, attitudes to the police, the nature of the main source of information about crime, newspaper readership, physical, and social incivilities.

Overall, this study has contributed to the current research gap by addressing geographic variation in fear of crime, while isolating residential burglary and robbery as offences that evoked the most fear. The findings also suggest that the social status variables (elderly residents in poor quality housing) rather than the geographic variables (high or low crime rates) influenced one's perception of vulnerability. This vulnerability is often associated with personal fear (fear for one-self) rather than altruistic fear (fear for others).

The work of Evans and Fletcher encourages researchers to include geographical factors in their studies. From a policy perspective, this research suggests that programs aimed at reducing fear of crime would be better developed with an inclusion of other socio-economic factors such as gender, age, housing quality, and affordability (see Reitsma-Street, Schofield, and Lung, 2001). Currently, the Canadian National Crime Prevention Centre is undertaking activities to address personal security issues of women and girls while co-ordinating efforts at the community level to improve women's safety (see Caledon Institute of Social Policy's Crime Prevention Initiatives, 1999; 2000).

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LICENSING THE SEX TRADE?

Lewis, Jacqueline & Maticka-Tyndale, Eleanor. (2000). **Licensing sex work: Public policy and women's lives.** *Canadian Public Policy*, xxvi, 4.

Reviewer:
Steven Bittle, Research Analyst

Since the early 1970s, there has been a growing body of social scientific research that examines the issue of prostitution. In Canada, the bulk of this research emerged following concerns in the 1980s with the public nuisance associated with street prostitution. During this period, increased public demands to do something about the street prostitution "problem" served as an impetus for the introduction of two federal government committees: the Committee on Sexual Offences Against Children and Youth (the Badgley Committee) and the Special Committee on Prostitution and Pornography (the Fraser Committee). In addition to producing a wealth of information about street prostitution in Canada, these committees provided the impetus for a considerable body of research literature on the street sex trade.

Despite a deluge of research on street prostitution, there is a paucity of information concerning the off-street sex trade (e.g., escort agencies, massage parlours). In this article, Lewis and Matick-Tyndale examine the escort industry in Windsor, Ontario to explore

how the licensing of escorts and "associated police practices affect the conduct of escort work and the health and well being of escort workers, most of whom are women." The authors are particularly interested in the "interface between municipal licensing of escorts and escort agencies and federal criminal statutes and police practices on the health and well-being of women who work as escorts."

Using a population health promotion model, which examines the impact of public policy on health and health determinants, the authors reviewed licensing and police practices in Windsor and conducted semi-structured, in-depth interviews with 18 escorts, eight escort agency personnel, five community workers, and five city officials who have contact with the industry. As a comparison, the authors examined the escort industry in Calgary, a city with a history of licensing escort agencies, and which served as a model to develop policies in Windsor. Interviews with public officials focused on various concerns associated with the escort industry, including health and well-being issues. Interviews with escorts covered topics such as demographic characteristics, work environments, implications of escort work, and various types of public policy.

Interviews with police, city officials and community workers revealed that licensing escort work represents a good way to monitor and control an industry described as prone to fraud and corruption. In addition to setting restrictions such as minimum age, and excluding anyone with a recent involvement in prostitution, drugs, fraud or crimes of violence from being licensed, licensing escorts and agencies allows officials to develop a file of names, addresses, phone numbers, and photographs. These are all tactics that are theoretically aimed at helping police protect escorts, apprehend customers who offend against escorts, and enforce bylaws.

Although the women believed that licensing "provided official recognition of escort work as an occupation" and a way of "increasing the legitimacy of their occupation," they also saw it as a coercive mechanism for controlling escorts and their agencies. For instance, escorts fear that licensing information on those who work in the industry will be used against the women by government organizations (e.g., taxation and social services) and during legal proceedings, such as child custody and criminal cases. Further concerns focused on the role of bylaw provisions in prohibiting women with a history of involvement in the sex trade from receiving a license (women who have worked on the streets and been charged cannot receive a license), and women who want to work independently of an agency can only do so if they purchase an expensive agency license, a situation that produces a captive labour force for agencies. Finally, restrictions placed on municipalities and escorts by the Criminal Code mean that "municipalities must walk a fine line when formulating and implementing local licensing policies in order to avoid coming into direct conflict with the law." The authors suggest this predicament "impedes the provision of information about, or services to facilitate, conducting escort work in a safe manner."

Escorts included in the study also recounted numerous incidents where police acted in a discriminatory manner. In addition to minimizing or downplaying the victimization experienced by escorts at the hands of clients (e.g., robbery, physical and sexual assault), the escorts noted that police frequently entrapped and harassed them by contacting them and attempting to negotiate a fee for sexual services, and subsequently arresting the woman for contravening the communicating law (s.213 of the *Criminal Code*). Police have also used personal information collected through the licensing process to contact the women and compel them to provide incriminating information about agency practices.

Overall, the authors suggest that "policing of federal statutes and municipal bylaws affect the social and economic well-being of escorts through incurred economic costs, disempowerment, stigmatization, invasion of privacy, and disruption of family and personal life." The escorts believe that licensing is a way to "increase the money in police and municipal coffers," and to increase police presence in their lives. As a result, the potential benefit of Windsor's licensing policy to "enhance the health and well being of escorts", they believe, has not been realized. The authors maintain that existing provisions of the *Criminal Code*, and the police mandate to enforce these statutes and municipal licensing bylaws, make it difficult to envision how "licensing can be a healthy public policy for escorts."

REDUCING RECIDIVISM THROUGH RESTORATIVE JUSTICE

Nugent, W.R., Umbreit, M.S., Wiinamaki, L., & Paddock, J. (2001). **Participation in victim-offender mediation and reoffense: Successful replications?** *Research on Social Work Practice*, 11, 5-23.

Reviewer:
Jeff Latimer, Senior Research Officer

Restorative justice, in its many forms (e.g., victim-offender mediation, circle sentencing, community conferencing), is emerging as an increasingly influential element in mainstream criminological thinking and practice. Restorative justice discourse shifts the focus away from the traditional rehabilitation versus retribution debate and introduces a valid third alternative, namely restoration (Zehr, 1990). Essentially, a restorative justice program strives to bring together the victim, the offender, and the community, in a safe and organised setting, to discuss the criminal event and determine appropriate reparation. Numerous countries have adopted restorative approaches including Canada, England, Australia, Scotland, New Zealand, Norway, the United States, Japan, and several other European countries (Hughes & Mossman, 2001). Despite the increased attention given to restorative justice, however, it is imperative to fully evaluate the effectiveness of this type of response to criminal behaviour. The present article by Nugent, Umbreit, Wiinamaki and Paddock (2001) makes a valuable contribution towards achieving this goal.

The authors examined the effectiveness of victim-offender mediation (VOM) in reducing recidivism within the young offender population in the United States by combining data from four unique studies. This allowed the authors to determine: a) the extent to which these four studies were valid replications; and, b) the effectiveness of VOM in reducing recidivism using aggregated data. If it was determined that the studies were successful replications, combining the results would provide a more compelling argument for the effectiveness of VOM than the results from individual studies alone. The four studies in question each measured the recidivism rates of both VOM participants and non-VOM participants using a control group design and a one-year follow-up period. Table 1 provides information on the basic characteristics of the four studies including the percentage of female young-offenders in each study.

Table 1. Study Characteristics

Study	Sample size	Mean Age	% Female
Umbreit (1994)	320	15.2	14%
Nugent & Paddock (1996)	275	15.3	20%
Wiinamaki (1997)	420	14.3	25%
Niemeyer & Schichor (1996)	283	n/a	n/a

The results of the authors' analyses, using logistic regression procedures, revealed that the four studies were invariant (i.e., the same) and therefore any between-study differences in the relationship between VOM participation and recidivism were chance occurrences. More importantly, the authors concluded that combining the data from the four studies would be a better indicator of the relationship between VOM participation and recidivism than individual study outcomes. The combined study data revealed that VOM participants were only about 60% as likely as non-VOM participants to re-offend within the one-year follow-up period. In other words, those offenders who had not participated in VOM were 1.65 times more likely to commit a new offence than VOM participants.

While these results are rather positive, and indicate the potential of victim-offender mediation with young offenders, they must also be placed in context. The authors are not suggesting that there is a causal relationship between participation in a restorative justice program and reduced recidivism, but rather, a correlational relationship. That is to say, those young offenders who participated in victim-offender mediation tended to display significantly lower levels of recidivism but one cannot infer that the restorative experience directly caused this reduction. Victim-offender mediation, and in fact, all restorative justice programs, are voluntary by definition. This creates an inherent self-selection bias that tempers the positive results of any study examining recidivism and VOM participation. This concern is elevated by a high rate of attrition (i.e., participants dropping out or refusing to participate) in restorative justice programs. McCold and

Wachtel (1998), for example, found clear differences in the recidivism rates of restorative justice participants (20%) versus individuals who refused participation in the program (48%) versus a comparison group (35%) from the traditional criminal justice system. In fact, they argue that there was no treatment effect on recidivism from participation in the restorative justice program beyond a self-selection effect.

Nonetheless, the results of this present study do suggest that, at the very least, those individuals that choose to participate in VOM demonstrate reductions in recidivism compared to those who experience the traditional criminal justice system. This is further supported by a recent meta-analysis completed by the Research and Statistics Division (Latimer, Dowden & Muise, 2001) that examined the effectiveness of 35 unique restorative justice programs. This research found similar reductions in recidivism for both adult and young offenders participating in multiple forms of restorative justice. A meta-analysis is an alternative method of aggregating data from multiple studies similar to the method used by the authors in the present study. The difference, however, is that a meta-analysis combines the statistical results from each study, while Nugent et al. combined the actual data from each study.

While critics have argued that it is naïve to believe that a time-limited intervention such as victim-offender mediation can possibly have a dramatic effect on altering criminal and delinquent behaviour (Umbreit, 1994), this study does provide encouraging results. The next critical step in examining the effectiveness of restorative justice practices on reducing recidivism is to overcome the limitations of existing research imposed by the inherent self-selection bias.

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PROFILING YOUNG OFFENDERS

Goddard, Wallace H., et al. (2000). **Profiles of delinquency: A comparison of delinquent behavioral groups.** *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 15, 19-50.

Reviewer:
Damir Kukec, Senior Statistician

This research article focuses on two opposing views in the literature on the nature and correlates of delinquent behaviour. The first view posits that there is a "single causal process that underlies delinquency and other related behaviours in youth" and without a specialization in delinquency. The second theory suggests a "multiple causal process", which prompts various problem behaviours or subcultures observed in adolescents. This process is said to produce specialized delinquent behaviour among adolescents. The authors of the research article note that although much empirical evidence supports the existence of a multiple causal process, they were unable to find "clear evidence" as to "whether these sub-cultures can be clearly identified." As a result, the purpose of their research was to examine whether or not subcultures of delinquency can be identified. They also provide a guide for selecting an appropriate technique for intervention.

Based on the literature and various theories of delinquency, the authors argue that different types of delinquency have diverse demographic, familial socialization, and psychological/personality correlates. They point out that "although delinquent groups may have some common characteristics, significant differences should exist across behavioural groups regarding known correlates of delinquency." The authors put forth the following hypotheses, which they tested through administering a self-report survey on delinquent behaviour.

Hypothesis 1: Segments of delinquents will differ in demographic characteristics.

Hypothesis 2: Segments of delinquents will report differences in familial socialization such as the quality of parent-child relationships, communication and abuse.

Hypothesis 3: Segments of delinquents will have different psychological indicators related to values, mastery, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and alienation.

Hypothesis 4: Segments of delinquents will differ in behavioural indicators related to drug use, sexual activity, gang involvement, and scholastic achievement.

The self-report survey was administered to 3,394 students in fifteen junior and senior high schools in rural Alabama. The authors note that the sample of youth represents a "census of those schools agreeing to participate in the study" and that the survey identifies both delinquent and non-delinquent youth. The researchers defined delinquents as respondents who "reported one or more delinquent acts" ranging from minor infractions such as truancy to more serious violent crimes like assault. The survey asked questions concerning the youths' demographic characteristics, their delinquent behaviour (using the Alabama Teen Assessment Program (ALTAP)), parental behaviour and family communication, abuse (physical and sexual), drug use, sexual activity, academic participation, values, and gang involvement. The survey also asked respondents: a) were they having any problems; and, b) if so, who would they talk to about their problems (e.g., parents, teachers, counsellors).

Overall, the analysis was conducted on 1,583 students who self-reported delinquent behaviour. The sample of the self-reported delinquents was almost evenly split between males (52%) and females (48%). The vast majority of the sample was between 13 to 17 years of age, with a median age of 15. The authors do acknowledge that the sample was predominately made up of self-reported delinquents of African-American descent, with 24% reporting a European American background. Although the survey included students from grade 6 to 12, the majority of the sample (61%) were in grade 7, 8, and 9. Almost half (48%) of the delinquent respondents reported that they were from "biologically intact families", 32% were from single parent families, 10% were from blended families, and the remaining reported another family structure.

Using a statistical method referred to as cluster analysis, the authors concluded that they were able to identify six individual homogenous groups of delinquents. The six groups or clusters included: troubled students; marginal delinquents; general delinquents; petty thieves; violent extortionists, and extreme delinquents. The statistical tests supported all four hypotheses, and "significant differences existed among the clusters on each hypothesis." The research article provides a profile of the demographic, familial socialization and behavioural characteristics of each cluster. The data suggest that as one moves from one side of the spectrum to the other (i.e., from troubled students to the extreme delinquents) the correlates change and the types of delinquent behaviours change as well. Delinquents also become more specialized in their delinquent behaviour as they move toward more serious types of offences.

Troubled students were most likely to be black female students in the eighth grade. They were likely to be living in a "broken home" where only one parent was present. However, other than the single parent family, the authors suggest that the home life was relatively stable and positive, with a working parent who was involved, and showed some control over access to friends. Troubled students showed a well-developed value system with strong mastery skills (e.g., felt they were less likely to smoke cigarettes or drink alcohol). While troubled students engaged in minor delinquent behaviour, most planned to stay in school and would be willing to talk to a counsellor, parent, grand parent and a friend, but not their boss.

Marginal delinquents were the largest group or cluster. Most in this group were likely to be white and in the ninth grade. Most reported living in a stable home with both biological parents providing care. Their parents tended not to use drugs. Religion was considered important and they attended church regularly. Marginal delinquents reported that both parents exhibited good parenting skills, with families expressing affection, discussing beliefs and problems, coping well with stress and showing concern. They tended to have a "well-developed" value system and a high "level of self-worth and self-esteem." Most of the respondents in this group were less likely to smoke and use alcohol or drugs than the other groups. They

reported committing few delinquent acts and did not specialize in any one act.

General delinquents tended to be black males whose parents were not cohabitating. Familial socialization was reported to be less developed than that of the above groups and they were more likely to report physical and sexual abuse - the abuse was characterized as less severe than that reported by the extreme delinquents. They also reported using alcohol and drugs, such as marijuana and cocaine. These respondents were more likely to report having raped their first sexual partner. This group scored high on delinquent acts and members often engaged in "forced sex", breaking and entering, truancy, using weapons to extort, vandalism, and physical assault. Since this group was active in all types of delinquent acts, they were considered general delinquents with no specialization.

Petty thieves specialized in petty theft and shoplifting and displayed a "proclivity toward vandalism." They were likely to be white males in the ninth grade. They reported that their parents were not cohabitating. This group reported negative parenting experiences with no positive reinforcement. Families were said to have difficulty in dealing with stress and members often argued and showed little concern for each other (however, they showed more concern than general delinquents). Although they viewed themselves in a negative light, this group did believe that they could "change the important things in their lives." They were likely to use alcohol and drugs, and reported gang affiliation.

Violent extortionists reported committing assault with weapons, they were actively engaged in physical extortion, auto theft, and physical assault. These individuals were also more likely to be picked up by the police when compared to the groups above. Most of the individuals in this group were older black males, with cohabitating parents, and both parents tended to use drugs. With respect to familial socialization, parents tended neither to control access to, nor time spent with, friends. Respondents from this group reported significant physical abuse over longer periods of time. They also placed less importance on many core values and described themselves as "dishonest, bad, cruel, strong and brave." They consumed alcohol and marijuana. They also tended to report being "active gang members." These respondents reported that they didn't trust their teachers and were not planning to stay in school.

Extreme delinquents frequently engaged in breaking and entering, rape, auto theft, weapons extortion, and other violent acts. They were also most likely to be picked up by police. Respondents from this group were almost entirely males and active gang members. Parents were likely to live together and to abuse alcohol and drugs. They reported a lengthy history of physical and sexual abuse by many individuals. Some indicated that they were still being abused. They reported low values and that "teachers did not care about them and that they did not plan to stay in school." They also reported less willingness to talk to members of their family concerning their personal problems; however, they expressed a willingness to talk to their boss.

With respect to the above clusters, the authors point out that "social learning theory may explain most of the types of delinquency (e.g., violent extortionist and extreme delinquents). These delinquent behaviours were associated with severe negative familial socialization. Cohabitation and drug abuse by both parents were common among severely delinquent clusters."

Although this article does provide new information on delinquency, the authors do acknowledge several limitations in their research. They note that their findings cannot be generalized to all youth in the US. Their study included "students attending school in one region of one Southern state." Therefore, we cannot be certain how applicable such results may be to Canada. They also correctly point out that the results may "understate" delinquency, because "highly delinquent individuals were not included in the sample (e.g., incarcerated youth and dropouts) and some truants may have been absent when the survey was given." The authors neglect to fully address ethical issues in the article. For example, the protection of youth who reported being sexually abused (i.e., extreme delinquents) or dealing with disclosures by those still engaged in criminal activities.

The current debate over the proposed *Youth Criminal Justice Act*, which is intended to replace the *Young Offenders Act*, provides an appropriate backdrop for this research article. From a policy perspective, it appears that the proposed legislation acknowledges the existence of segmented delinquents, by proposing legislation that "reflects a balanced approach to youth justice that aims to instil values such as accountability, responsibility and respect." The proposed legislation is also said to "include more effective, targeted measures to deal with both serious, violent offences and the vast majority of youth offences which are less serious."

FIREARMS RESEARCH

Southwick, Lawrence Jr. (2000). **Self-defense with guns: The consequences**. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 32, 351-370.

Reviewer:
Stephen Mihorean, A/Principal Statistician

In this article, Lawrence Southwick Jr. analyzes the choices of potential victims and criminals with respect to weapons using an economic game framework. Using data from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) in the United States, he models the choices and outcomes for both potential victims and attackers. The victims' choices were: to have a gun; to take some action; or, to take no action. The attackers' choices were: to have a gun; to have some other weapon; or, to not have a gun. The outcomes examined, from the victims' perspective, were property loss, cash loss, and serious injury (rape, knife wound, bullet wound, broken bones, internal injuries, and being knocked unconscious). This study is based on two data sets created from the NCVS, a 1979-1987 data set and a data set on incidents occurring in 1991. As there were some missing years, the data sets were analyzed separately.

This study found that gun usage by victims (defenders) is correlated with gun use by offenders (attackers). The study also found that either "having a gun" or "taking some action" substantially reduced the probability of the victim actually suffering a loss. With respect to resulting injuries to the victim, the author does note (to his credit) that the "use of a gun" versus "not having a gun" did not result in a significant difference, because the sample size was too small. The number of injured victims who were armed with a gun was just eighteen in total from both the 1979-87 and 1991 NCVS data sets. This sample shrinks to just seven when one considers only those cases in which attackers were armed with a gun.

Interestingly, he also found that the victim's choice of having a gun is not independent of the criminal's choice. That is, people who are more likely to be attacked by people with guns are themselves more likely to be armed in self-defence, noting that potential victims are more likely to use their gun if an armed person attacks them. Perhaps this is more a function of like-minded individuals participating in similar activities. Offenders' motivations are either "commercial" or are to harm the potential victim. The concluding section of this article looked at the results in terms of both losses and injuries that would have occurred if more of the victims had been armed. Southwick reports that "potential victims who choose to carry guns provide an external benefit to the class of potential victims". He concludes that victims who have and use guns have both lower losses and lesser injury rates from violent crime when, in fact, the only significant difference in the likelihood of receiving an injury is if one takes no action.

In the end, it is not entirely clear that the author's argument is testable. This is not because of the data or his choice of method, both of which are acceptable. It is simply because of a discrepancy between his data-based premises and his conclusions. If, as Southwick suggests, people feel the need to arm themselves for self-defence, it may follow that they likely feel in greater peril of being attacked. It does not necessarily follow, as he contends, that people who may feel in greater peril of being attacked would be more likely to arm themselves. They may be more likely to stay indoors or less likely to go out after dark.

The author introduced his work by noting that much of the analysis in this area has been done by "partisans" of one side of the gun-control debate or the other. He points, for example, to papers published in the medical literature. This work, he says is frequently empirically unsound and analytically weak. It is unfortunate, however, that he uses partisan language to describe this body of work as "almost uniformly anti-gun". Doing so makes it difficult for the reader to appreciate Southwick's argument on its own merits. The unbalanced language in this article alerts the reader to a potential bias and negates the potential importance of his own analysis. Further, his ability to judge work as empirically unsound and analytically weak is questionable as Southwick cites the Canadian work of Mauser (1996) on the issue of armed self-defence. For a number of reasons, Mauser's findings are suspect, not the least of which is his inclusion of incidents against animals in his estimates of defensive uses of firearms. Also critical is Mauser's sample size and the ambiguity of the survey questions

A recurring theme in the gun-control debate is the question of how personal safety is affected by gun ownership. As Southwick notes, this issue is compli-

cated by many factors. Just one of those factors is the level of gun ownership. Surveys and polls over the past twenty years have consistently shown that American homes are twice as likely to possess a firearm as compared to Canadian homes (Gabor, 1997). This fact and the stark contrast between the American carry-laws and the Canadian legislation that grants permission to carry firearms for personal protection only in exceptional circumstances makes this research less applicable to the Canadian scene.

While recognizing that there are costs associated with potential victims arming themselves, Southwick concludes that this will result in "too few guns being carried for a social optimum". While this may be his preference, it is certainly divorced from a much wider body of literature that identifies a relationship between firearm availability and increases in certain types of violent crime, particularly homicide.

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JUDICIAL REVIEW

Thomassin, K. & Landreville, P. **"La couverture journalistique des requêtes de révision judiciaire au Canada"**, *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, vol. 43, no 1, January 2001, p. 1-25.

Reviewer:
Manon Harvey, Research Officer

When the death penalty was abolished in Canada in 1976, a new legal provision was introduced into the *Criminal Code* with respect to judicial review (section 745.6). Under this provision, persons convicted of murder and who must serve more than 15 years of imprisonment may apply for a judicial review of their period of parole ineligibility. A jury determines whether to reduce the number of years of imprisonment without eligibility for parole that an applicant must serve. Since the first judicial review in 1987, many individuals convicted of murder have taken advantage of this provision. These applications sometimes receive media coverage which, according to some authors, does not suitably explain the judicial review process (O'Reilly-Fleming 1991; Roberts 1994a) and goes so far as to give it negative publicity (Roberts 1994a; 1994b; 1995; 1997). If we consider that 31% of Canadians learn about sentencing through the written press (Roberts, 1988), the impact of negative media coverage of judicial review may be significant. Confronted with the misinformation found in daily newspapers, the public may become resistant to judicial review.

Thomassin and Landreville are the first researchers to offer their analysis of media coverage of judicial review in the written press across Canada. In co-operation with Correctional Service Canada, the researchers reviewed all the judicial review applications made in Canada from 1987 to May 31, 1998. In total, 92 applications were found. Key information was derived from these applications which lead to the selection of Canadian newspaper articles. Three criteria were used to select the sample of articles: (i) the province in which the application for judicial review was made, (ii) the weekly circulation of the daily newspapers and (iii) the immediate review period. Based on circulation, only the newspapers with the most readers in the

provinces were selected. In the end, two daily newspapers were studied in British Columbia, five in the Prairies, one in Ontario, three in Quebec and four in the Maritimes.

Thomassin and Landreville deal with four aspects in their article:

- the extent of the media coverage of judicial reviews
- the content of the coverage
- the factors related to the intensity of the coverage
- the relationship between media coverage of these judicial reviews and the jury decisions to reduce the period of parole ineligibility

In relation to the extent of the media coverage, the authors first noted the lack of consistency throughout Canada in the percentage of applications published. For example, in the Maritime provinces and in the Prairies, almost all of the applications were published (100% and 90% respectively). In contrast, few applications received media coverage in Quebec (10 of 43 applications heard were published). This lack of consistency is also seen in the intensity of the coverage of these applications. Almost half of the requests published (22 out of 47) received low media coverage (1 to 3 articles on each application), while a little less than a quarter (11 out of 47) received significant media attention (10 articles or more).

As for the content of the coverage, Thomassin and Landreville note a difference in the number of unfavourable headlines between British Columbia and Quebec. More specifically, 42% of the headlines from British Columbia have a negative connotation, as opposed to only 9% in Quebec. The articles follow the same trend as the headlines. Indeed, as one moves from west to east, the proportion of unfavorable articles decreases. The most striking differences are between Quebec and British Columbia. In Quebec, more than 50% of the articles are favourable, whereas in British Columbia 50% are unfavourable. Looking at the country as a whole, about 33% of the articles published look negatively upon the applicant and/or reducing the period of parole ineligibility.

In respect to the accuracy of the coverage, the researchers noted with surprise that most articles accurately reported on the nature and operation of section 745.6 of the *Criminal Code*, despite its relative complexity. British Columbia is the region where the most incorrect facts were published (23% or 14 articles out of 61). The regions that published the least number of inaccurate articles are Ontario (7% or 4 articles out of 57) and the Maritime provinces (6% or 1 article out of 6). It is also interesting to note that the newspapers that published the most inaccurate articles are not the tabloids, given their inclination toward sensationalism, but rather large-scale newspapers.

Finally, the authors found that there was a significant relationship between jury decisions and media coverage. In fact, juries refused only 11% of the unpublished applications, compared to 33% of the applications that appeared in a newspaper.

In terms of their analysis, Thomassin and Landreville conclude that the media coverage of judicial reviews gives the public a distorted view. Although media coverage of each application for judicial review is less negative and more accurate than predicted, the coverage gives an imprecise view because only some of the cases are reported, and excessive attention is given to certain "sensational" cases. In addition, the coverage is more complete in the regions where anti-review groups operate, thus giving inconsistent coverage across the country.

As stated by the authors of this article, a more uniform, objective and complete media coverage would certainly have positive implications on the public's perception of judicial review. This is a very significant statement, but at the same time, are Thomassin and Landreville's findings really surprising? After all, it's a well-known fact that the media can produce misinformation, and show subjectivity even though they purport to be objective. Also, in some circumstances, the media has been known to filter information – divulging certain facts to the public and disregarding others. That being said, it is most likely that any researcher adding to the study of media coverage of controversial subjects will come to similar conclusions to those of the authors. In addition to being transferable into other areas of criminal justice, these conclusions may also be applicable to other fields covered by the media such as politics and the economy. Media misinformation does not exist solely with respect to legal issues, it can be found everywhere, even in simple news items. In other words, the authors' results were predictable for the simple reason that despite the journalists' professional ethics, they must carry out their work in a pre-established structure having its own mandate and operating methods just like every other profession. Also, it cannot be ignored that sensationalism is often a vehicle for the sale of media products. The world of media is not exempt from the rules of the marketplace. Admittedly, many journalists called to cover incidents dealing with legal issues (or other areas) are not specialists. As a result, certain subtleties of legal reality may escape them.

The campaign for better media coverage of judicial review is commendable and highly desirable, but in the end futile because it implicitly puts into question the very foundation on which the media is based. If we want to ensure complete, accurate and reliable information with respect to criminal justice, we must rely on more sources of information other than the media; otherwise, we subject ourselves to the possibility of being misinformed by reported facts that may be inaccurate.

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SPOUSAL ASSAULT IN CANADA

Johnson, H. & Pottie Bunge, V. (2001). **Prevalence and consequences of spousal assault in Canada**. *Canadian Journal of Criminology*, 43, (1), 27-45.

Reviewer:
Robin Fitzgerald, Senior Research Analyst

In this article, Johnson and Pottie Bunge attempt to shift the current focus in the debate on the gender-specificity of spousal assaults away from the amount of spousal violence experienced by men and women, and toward the consequences and societal costs of this violence. Using data from Statistics Canada's 1999 General Social Survey (GSS) on Victimization, they engage an ongoing debate about the nature and extent of spousal assaults (Straus, 1999; Sarantakos, 1999). The improved GSS data they present mark the first time that both men and women at the national level in Canada were surveyed about victimization by a current or former spouse.

With respect to prevalence, the authors report that the GSS rates of spousal violence against men and women are similar. Overall, 7.9% of adults who were married or living in a common-law relationship, or were in contact with a previous spouse during the 5-year period preceding the survey, reported having experienced some form of violence by a partner. Broken down by sex, the 5-year rate for women (8.7%) was slightly, but significantly higher than for men (7.0%).

They also point out that the status of the union makes a difference. Men in current unions were slightly more likely to report having experienced violence within the previous 5 years than were women (4.3% and 3.7%, respectively). However, rates for previous unions were higher overall and particularly for women (28.5% and 21.9%, respectively). This finding is not unexpected since previous studies have indicated that women are particularly vulnerable to post-separation victimization (Campbell, 1992).

Johnson and Pottie Bunge attempt to play down the importance of prevalence rates in research on spousal violence. First, they point out that the prevalence of female and male victimization will continue to be open to debate as methods of measurement are improved and definitions are refined. For example, they suggest that the addition of 5-year rates to the usual 1-year rates in victimization surveys is an improvement introduced in the 1999 GSS that provides greater precision in measuring violence that typically occurs over an extended period.

Second, they argue that while prevalence rates can be useful summary statistics, the measurement and comparison of prevalence rates between men and women may not be as important as an examination of consequences. A straightforward comparison of rates between men and women in different countries can mask important differences in the seriousness of assaults, the context within which they occur, and the consequences for victims.

In fact, the results that Johnson and Pottie Bunge present suggest that consequences for women may be

more severe than those for men. Thus, although the overall rates of violence are similar for men and women, the types of violence experienced by both are different. Women were four times more likely than men to have experienced the most serious and potentially injurious category of assaults. Similarly, while men and women experience roughly equal rates of emotional abuse, the type of abuse women experience involves higher percentages of put-downs and name-calling, attempts to limit contact with others, property damage, attempts to prevent access to family income, and threats of harm to someone else.

The authors also suggest that female victimization may impose a higher cost on society. Women were more likely to be injured, to use medical services, spend time in the hospital, and take time off paid or unpaid work. They were also more likely to use counselling and shelter services as well as to report the violence to the police. Women were five times as likely as men to say they feared their lives were in danger from a violent spouse.

Beyond highlighting some findings from Canada's most recent victimization survey, Johnson and Pottie Bunge's major contribution in this article is to acknowledge that the measurement of the extent of spousal violence in the general population can still be improved, and to suggest that the attention paid to the debate over the rates of victimization experienced by men and women should be shifted toward the consequences suffered by both.

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ORGANIZED CRIME AND CONFISCATION LAWS

Freiberg, A. & Fox, R. (2000). **Evaluating the Effectiveness of Australia's Confiscation Laws.** *The Australian & New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 33, 239-265.

Reviewers:
An Nguyen, Research Assistant
Dan Antonowicz, Research Analyst

In the past decade and a half, jurisdictions in Australia have introduced a number of legislative initiatives for the confiscation and forfeiture of the proceeds of crime. These initiatives were strongly promoted as being powerful weapons against organized crime. In this article, Freiberg and Fox examined confiscation and forfeiture legislation across Australia (both state and national) in order to determine how they have been applied, whether they have been properly targeted, whether they have achieved the desired deterrent effect, and, lastly, whether the increasing severity of these laws is justified.

According to Freiberg and Fox, the reasons behind the development of these laws are that: (1) certain crimes are mainly profit-driven; (2) organized profit-driven offenders are more dangerous than individual offenders; and, (3) traditional sanctions such as imprisonment and fines are unsuccessful in deterring these offenders. These authors indicated that while Australia's confiscation laws have evolved over the past few years and vary between Australian jurisdictions, three core factors remain constant in the legislation. The first factor is a restraining order that allows a court to prevent any dealings with certain assets pending final confiscation proceedings. Secondly, they are characterized by an order that authorizes the forfeiture of "tainted property". Lastly, there is the pecuniary order that permits a court to order a person who has benefited from the commission of an offence to repay the equivalent of that benefit.

Despite the popularity of these laws, Freiberg and Fox indicated that little empirical attention has been devoted to systematically examining how the legislation operates in practice. They suggested the need to

compare the number of cases in which confiscation measures are used with the number of those in which they could have been applied. Not every case will be considered for a confiscation order given the potential time and financial costs involved. However, the authors noted that the general inadequacy of data across Australia would make this analysis very difficult.

The authors further asserted that it is difficult to determine the extent to which the confiscation legislation has actually been applied to organized crime in Australia. In most jurisdictions, the legislation can be brought into play in relation to any indictable offence. Unfortunately, no comprehensive data are available at the state or federal level to examine this issue. Based on a preliminary review of annual state and national reports, the authors suggested that the primary effect of the laws appears to have been to confiscate the criminal profits of individual offenders, rather than to immobilize large organized crime groups.

Freiberg and Fox state that if confiscation legislation is to have a major deterrent effect, the capital base of profit-driven crime needs to be reduced. In order to determine if the amount confiscated each year is having this desired effect, it is essential to determine the size of the capital base of profit-driven crime first and then to compare it to the amount confiscated to assess if it has reduced the capital base of crime. After reviewing the limited national data available in Australia on this issue, the authors concluded that confiscation legislation has had a minimal effect on the total capital base of crime. Freiberg and Fox, however, indicated that it is very difficult to generate an accurate estimate of the size and amount of criminal activity in Australia

The authors went on to report that confiscation laws have become increasingly more severe in Australia (both state and national), as well as in other countries. A number of jurisdictions in Australia have, with alarming frequency, amended, repealed, or replaced these laws in order to make them harsher. Freiberg and Fox cautioned that decisions regarding increasing the severity of confiscatory powers should be deferred until implementation and operational inefficiencies have been addressed. These may include the lack of coordination within and between law enforcement agencies and the lack of resources to pursue long and expensive cases. It may be that some of these inefficiencies have reduced the impact of this legislation.

Freiberg and Fox concluded that confiscation laws appeared to have had only a slight effect on the amount of serious profitable crime in the community and have had little impact in disrupting larger criminal organizations. This is consistent with the prevailing view of law enforcement officials in England (Levi and Osofsky, 1995). The largest effect appears to stem from the targeting of individual offenders. Freiberg and Fox suggested that confiscation laws are necessary but should be considered as only one component in combating major organized crime. According to them, it is probably too much to expect otherwise. Despite this, more empirical research needs to be conducted in Australia and abroad in order to examine confiscation laws more extensively. We lack information on how confiscation laws work in practice. A comparison of confiscation laws to other sanctions such as fines or reparation orders, or other remedies available under taxation, bankruptcy, and corporation legislation is also needed.

In Canada, proceeds of crime have drawn more attention recently from the federal government. Bill C-24, which will be before the Senate in the fall of 2001, contains miscellaneous criminal law amendments to expand the attack on the proceeds of crime. Research to examine these amendments in order to assess their effectiveness and how they work in practice would be beneficial for future policy development.

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CHILD MALTREATMENT PREVENTION

Ko, Susan F., & Cosden, Merith A. (2001). **Do Elementary School-Based Child Abuse Prevention Programs Work? A High School Follow-Up.** *Psychology in Schools*, 38(1), 57-66.

Reviewer:
Nicola Epprecht, Research Analyst

Since their inception in the 1970s, school-based child abuse prevention programs have proliferated in the United States. Studies have shown that a majority of elementary school children have had some exposure to victimisation prevention programs. To date,

however, there have been few evaluations of the efficacy of these types of programs. This California-based study attempts to evaluate the impact of a school-wide child abuse prevention program on children's knowledge and behaviour.

The authors of the study attempted to address two major questions:

1. To what extent will the knowledge imparted by these programs translate into subsequent behaviours?
2. To what extent will the actions proposed by these programs help prevent abuse or reduce harm under different abuse conditions?

The data were collected in collaboration with a local social service agency (Child Abuse Learning and Mediation or CALM) that had been providing abuse prevention presentations to students in area schools for 18 years. The prevention program is implemented during kindergarten, fourth grade and seventh grade by counsellors who are trained and employed by CALM. Data were collected anonymously on 137 students at a high school in southern California. The authors anticipated that some of these high school students would have attended the local elementary schools where the prevention program was in place, and that other students would have no experience with the local programs, due to mobility.

The authors tested the following five hypotheses:

1. Students who participated in school-based abuse prevention programs (AP group) would have greater understanding of how to recognise and respond to physical and sexual abuse than would students who had not participated in abuse prevention programs (NP group).
2. Students in the AP group would report fewer episodes of physical or sexual abuse than would students in the NP group.
3. Students in the AP group would report greater use of strategies recommended by abuse prevention programs than would students in the NP group.
4. Students who utilise strategies taught in the prevention programs would be more effective in avoiding physical and sexual abuse or reducing harm during abuse incidents.
5. These strategies would be less effective when used with known rather than unknown offenders.

All students were assessed during their Health class. Students were required to take this class, but could be exempted on philosophical or religious grounds if their parents offered a written request. Questionnaires were administered to all students in four class periods, with the exception of seven students who had parental requests on file to not participate in this type of evaluation. Items on the questionnaire were multiple-choice, true or false, or other short answer formats. The following domains were covered: demographics; attendance at abuse prevention programs; knowledge about abuse and abuse prevention; experience of physical abuse; and, experience of sexual abuse. Participating students were given a pencil with the agency's phone number if they needed to talk to someone afterwards.

The determination of whether or not students had attended an abuse prevention program was made through students' self-report. Approximately half of the students in the sample reported attending an abuse prevention program (N=72, 52.9%), while 65 (47.1%) did not. This item was used to categorize students for subsequent analyses. There were no statistical differences between the two groups with regard to gender or ethnicity. There was a small but, statistically significant, difference in age/grade. Students in the AP group tended to be younger than were students in the NP group.

The authors found no support for the first hypothesis which dealt with recognizing and responding to abusive situations.

Fewer students in the AP group (N=11, 15%) reported instances of physical abuse than in the NP group (N=21, 32%). This difference was statistically significant. Overall, 14 students (7 in each of the two groups) reported an experience of sexual abuse. Thus, support for the second hypothesis is mixed.

Support for the third hypothesis was also mixed, as there was no statistical difference between the two groups in either use of any of the recommended strategies, or in levels of disclosure of abuse.

Hypothesis four stated that the strategies encouraged by abuse prevention programs would be effective in reducing and avoiding harm. Students from both groups who had been abused were combined on the basis of whether or not they used one of the commonly recommended strategies. Forty-six per cent reported that the strategy had a positive impact, 43% reported negative outcomes, and 11% described some negative and some positive outcomes. For students who had been abused and who had not used a recommended strategy, 25% reported a positive outcome while the remaining 75% noted a negative outcome.

The authors found support for the fifth hypothesis, in that 62% of students whose abusers were unknown to them reported that the strategies they used were effective in reducing or preventing abuse, whereas only 34% of these with known offenders believed that their strategies were effective.

The authors of this study acknowledge some of the limitations of their survey, such as sampling and reliance on self-report data. They also recognise some of the difficulties in evaluating child abuse prevention programs, such as examining effects that will manifest themselves in the future. They also write that evidence as to the effectiveness of abuse prevention lies in the ability to document the absence (or reduction) of abusive incidents that might or might not have occurred without a program. In addition to these difficulties with evaluation, the limited scope and the quasi-experimental design of this study virtually guarantee that the results of the survey will be of limited use to those who design and implement school-based child abuse prevention programs. Studies with a comparison group are generally perceived as more reliable than a simple pre/post-test design. However, because the comparison group was not assigned randomly, it is not possible to derive unbiased estimates of the magnitude of the effects produced specifically by a program.

While this study does contribute to the limited amount of research on the effectiveness of school-based child abuse prevention programs, its methodology and scope restrict the utility and generalisability of the findings. This study does, however, serve as a good reference point for future studies on this topic both in Canada and abroad.

Research in Profile

As we indicated last issue, *JustResearch* has been expanded and we now include two pieces of original research submitted to the *JustResearch* Team. The goal of this section is to profile the recent work of a Canadian academic active in justice-related issues and the work of one of our own researchers within the Division. In this issue, we have included two excellent pieces of research in the areas of victimization and fear of crime. The first section profiles the work of Professor Bernard Schissel from the University of Saskatchewan and his exploration of victimization among immigrant children and youth in Canada. The second section presents the recent work of Nathalie Quann and Kwing Hung, from the Research and Statistics Division, on fear of crime and victimization.

THE IMPACT OF VICTIMIZATION ON THE WELL-BEING OF IMMIGRANT CHILDREN AND YOUTH

By Professor Bernard Schissel, Department of Sociology, University of Saskatchewan

Introduction and Methodology

As children from immigrant families adjust to life in a new world, their emotional and physical well-being is dependent, in part, on their experiences in the school system. The school is a "home away from home" for most students and this idiom is probably most applicable for immigrant children and youth who are, upon arrival, exposed primarily to two contexts, the home and the school. This suggests that, for immigrant children and youth, their perceptions of Canadian society rest largely with their school experiences. The extension of this is that their successful integration into Canadian life and their happiness with that integration will depend on how safe and welcome they feel. This research is an attempt to understand the nature of the school and after school experiences of immigrant children and youth and how those experiences - with respect to safety and security - influence their emotional and social well-being and ultimately, their integration into Canadian society. This study of victimization, then, is rather unique in that it draws on the voices and insights of immigrant children themselves.

The research upon which this report is based stemmed from a project funded through the Prairie Centre of Excellence for Research on Immigration and Integration (PCERII), one of the National Research

Centres funded by the Canadian Metropolis Project (a joint research program of Social Sciences Humanities Research Council, the Treasury Board Secretariat and Citizenship and Immigration Canada). The research on immigrant children and youth draws on the cooperation of the schools who have English as a Second Language programs in Edmonton and Saskatoon to access immigrant students who live in inner city and suburban community settings. Face to face interviews have been conducted with 57 elementary school immigrant children and 112 high school immigrant youth in seven public and separate schools. Victimization is measured by a factor analysis of a series of questions that identified types of peer abuse including being pushed, hit with or without an object, tripped, and held. Verbal victimization includes indicators of racial slurs, non-racial name-calling and swearing. Well-being is constructed with scales that measure anger, depression, school and non-school participation and degree of family involvement.

The overall foci are student accounts of in-school experiences of physical and verbal victimization with respect to gender, socio-economic background, educational and work aspirations, involvement in peer activities, and perceptions of family/community support for their education.

Major Hypotheses

The primary focus of this research is to determine the impact that verbal and physical victimization has on the well-being of immigrant children and youth, especially with respect to their emotional health and to their successful integration into the society both inside and outside school. This overarching hypothesis applies to both elementary and high school students. The hypotheses examined include:

1. That verbal/physical victimization will increase levels of anger and depression for immigrant children and youth.
2. That both verbal/physical victimization and fear of victimization will have negative effects on:

   a. the degree of involvement for immigrant children in school;

   b. the degree of involvement in out of school activi ties for immigrant children and youth; and,

   c. the degree of involvement in family life for immi grant children and youth.

Major Findings

Descriptive Results

1. Elementary school students report higher levels of verbal victimization than do their high school counterparts: 14.5% of elementary students report daily verbal victimization compared to 5.7% of high school students, while 52.8% of elementary students report verbal victimization several times a year or more compared to 28.9% of high school students.
2. Elementary school students also report higher levels of physical victimization than do high school students: 1.8% of elementary students report being hit once a week and 12.7% report being hit at least several times a year compared to .8% and 8.1% respectively for high school students; 3.6% of elementary students report being kicked once a week and 14.5% report being kicked several times a year compared to 1.8% and 9.9% respectively for high school students.
3. Interestingly, high school students report witnessing victimization of peers much more than do elementary students. Thirteen percent of all the high school students interviewed reported they had witnessed physical racial-based victimization compared to 4.7% of elementary students. Similarly, 48.4% of high school students had witnessed physical non-racial-based victimization compared to 27.3% of elementary students.
4. Consonant with elementary students reporting relatively high levels of actual victimization, their levels of fear of victimization are consistently higher than their high school counterparts. For example, 14% of high school students fear being victimized in school sometimes or a lot compared to 38.1% of elementary students. Similarly, 25.3% of high school students fear victimization outside of school sometimes or a lot comparted to 32.7% of elementary students.
5. Lastly, elementary students whose racial origin is self-declared as Middle-Eastern, Mixed, or South Asian report the highest levels of physical victimization. For high school students that report the highest victimization, they declare themselves to be Middle Eastern, Central American or of Mixed Ethnic origin. Students in both elementary and high school from India/Pakistan, Africa, or Europe report no physical victimization. Interestingly, for verbal victimization (racially-based name calling), the proportions of students who are victimized are relatively constant across racial and ethnic origin categories.

Correlational Results

This part of the results section addresses directly the hypotheses presented above. The causal analyses are based on multivariate crosstabs for the elementary

school sample and regression analyses for the high school sample. The results presented below are based on chi-square levels of significance for the cross tabular models (p=.05) and t-tests for the regression coefficients (p=.05). I wish to inform the reader, at this point, that the influences discussed below are isolated from other influences; that is, by controlling for all other plausible factors, the analytical models are able to isolate the unique effects of the individual victimization variables.

1. Anger and Depression:

Elementary Students

The only significant causal influence for both anger and depression was "fear of being hurt." Those students who responded that they fear "a lot" in school have the highest levels of both anger and depression. Those who say they "never" fear have correspondingly the lowest levels.

High School Students

The regression models predicting depression for the high school sample provide a relatively complex model of the effects of victimization on emotional well-being. Age and sex both have substantial influences on depression and suggest that older students have greater levels of depression than younger students and that girls have higher levels of depression than boys. On turning to the victimization variables, however, the prediction model suggests quite clearly that "victimization outside school" has the greatest influence on depression followed by witnessing victimization and victimization in school. It is interesting that the verbal victimization variables have no influence on depression. Finally, the variable "year immigrated" is significant and suggests that levels of depression diminish with length of residency.

The regression model predicting anger for high school students is similar to that for depression and shows that "physical victimization in school" has the greatest influence on anger followed by "witnessing victimization." As with depression, "length of residence" has an ameliorating effect on anger. The "length of residence variable" is interesting in both models in that it suggests that emotional well-being seems to improve the longer immigrant youth are in the country.

Overall, the results for the emotional well-being variables indicate that actual physical victimization and the witnessing of the victimization of others do have damaging effects on the emotional well-being of immigrant youth.

2. School Involvement

Elementary Students

Overall, factors that are associated with low school involvement for elementary immigrant children are the extent to which they are verbally abused and physically victimized in school. Specifically, those children who are often the brunt of racial or non-racial name calling or who have relatively high levels of physical victimization, tend not to participate in school activities.

High School Students

The significant causal influences in the model predicting school activity for high school youth are relatively simplistic and includes only one victimization variable, "called names in school." This significant effect suggests, as was the case with elementary students, that students who have high exposure to name calling in school tend to have relatively low levels of school involvement. The other two significant variables are "length of residence" which suggests that school involvement increases as students spend more time in Canada and "sex" which indicates that boys participate significantly less in school than do girls.

The result that verbal victimization leads to lower rates of school involvement is consistent for both elementary and high school students.

3. Community Involvement

Elementary Students

Of all the variables tested with community involvement, the only significant influence is victimization in school in that elementary students who are exposed to high levels of victimization in school tend not to get involved in community activities.

High School Students

Interestingly, for the high school students, none of the victimization variables influences community involvement. However, the model shows several important influences. Firstly, visible minority students (primarily students from non-European countries) tend to be less involved in the community than their Caucasian counterparts. Further, as with previous findings, the longer students spend in Canada, the more likely they are to participate in the community. Lastly, as with the school activity variable, boys tend to participate less in the community than do girls.

Quite clearly, high levels of victimization deter elementary school children from becoming involved in the community.

4. Family Involvement

High School Students

The research results for family participation for high school students are significant for several reasons. Firstly, one would assume that victimization inside and outside school might compel immigrant youth to rely on their families more so than otherwise. Secondly, one might assume that youth rely on their families the most upon immigration and that this reliance may abate as they become accustomed to their new country. Interestingly, neither is the case in this sample. In fact, the two strongest associations for family participation are "called names in school" and "called names outside school." Both findings suggest that the more that youth are verbally victimized, the less they tend to associate with their families. In contradistinction, however, the more youth observe the physical victimization of others, the more they are involved with their families. In addition, the longer a youth is in Canada, the more likely they are to be involved in family life, a somewhat surprising finding that suggests that family life may be disrupted initially upon immigration. Lastly, it is significant that the more religious a student is, the more they are involved in family, a finding that is logical since overt forms of religiosity such as church attendance, prayer, and the reading of religious magazines tend to be family oriented activities.

Verbal victimization has a detrimental impact on family involvement. Youth who are exposed to racial taunts, for example, tend to have lower levels of family involvement. The youth who witness the victimization of others relatively often, however, tend to rely on family more so than those youth who rarely witness victimization.

Policy Implications

The policy implications of this research are rather self-evident. If it is the case that young immigrants self-isolate as a result of adverse interactions in the school system, especially in the seminal stages of integration, then their safety and security are paramount. Zero tolerance policies, however, are likely insufficient, as the well-being of immigrant children is likely built on a framework that involves not only non-acceptance of verbal and physical violence, but also programs of mutual understanding and mutual learning. To this end, the findings of this research suggest the following.

1. Immigrant children and youth are most vulnerable to physical and verbal trauma in the early stages of their lives in Canada and school policy needs to be particularly attuned to this vulnerability.
2. Actual physical abuse and the witnessing of such abuse have a substantial impact on levels of emotional well-being and school policy needs to incorporate an understanding not only of the signs but also the origins of depression and anger in immigrant children and youth.
3. Verbal victimization (including both racial and non-racial attacks) has a detrimental influence on school involvement for children and youth. School policy must aggressively address verbal abuse most effectively through racial tolerance training as a fundamental part of the curriculum. There is a school for high risk youth in Saskatoon offering daily courses in cultural awareness and mutual understanding especially with respect to race. These courses are accompanied by a poster campaign and well-trained teachers who make certain that racial, class and gender understanding are a fundamental part of the school context. In this regard, school policy must also be attuned to the likelihood that recent immigrant children and youth are marginal to school activities and the aforementioned sensitivity training could quite easily incorporate the cooperation of immigrant kids in school activities.
4. Lastly, in a social policy context, it is important to reiterate the influence that verbal victimization has on involvement and well-being. The results here show that high levels of verbal victimization for immigrant children and youth are accompanied by low levels of involvement in family life and schools must be cognizant not only to the victimization itself, but of the possibility that some children and youth may tend to be disconnected from their families as a results of victimization. Quite plausibly, then, the struggle for sensitivity training in school and the need to deal with traumatized immigrant children and youth should involve both immigrant and non-immigrant parents and extended families.

Future Research

The well-being of immigrant children and youth in Canada is a relatively unexplored area. The present research is an initial attempt to understand issues of safety and security in the lives of immigrant children and youth and how verbal and physical victimization leads to emotional distress and non-integration into society. The obvious extension of this research is to explore how family members feel and act toward their children's integration or lack of integration. The trau-

ma that children feel is obviously shared by many parents, grandparent and siblings. To understand the barriers to personal integration, we need to understand how families cope with their children's victimization. As with the current research, then, if we are going to engage in school and community policy that welcomes newcomers and facilitates their integration into Canadian society, we need to make certain that the voices of newcomers inform that policy. Lastly, there are isolated examples of schools that are very effective in dealing with issues of age, class, race and gender discrimination - many of which are driven by First Nations issues - and we need to explore how these "educational communities" change and extend traditional educational models to make schools more welcoming for newcomers.

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VICTIMIZATION EXPERIENCE AND THE FEAR OF CRIME : A CROSS-NATIONAL STUDY

By Nathalie Quann, Research Analyst & Kwing Hung, Senior Statistician, Research and Statistics Division

The issue of fear of crime has attracted attention for many years, especially in Canada, the United States and England. Researchers, policy makers, even pollsters, are interested in looking at people's fear of crime to help identify strategies that will reduce fear. Despite decreases or stability in crime rates in most industrialized countries, fear is generally on the increase. The media plays an important role by publishing or releasing accounts of violent offences which are in fact, a very small proportion of criminal offences reported to the police. Studies of fear of crime help in targeting public policies and programmes that may calm the public despite daily accounts of violence in our society.

Methodology

The International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) is the most comprehensive longitudinal and cross-national survey examining victimization experience all over the world as well as an excellent tool in identifying public perception of the criminal justice system. Four cycles of the ICVS have been completed to date (1988, 1992, 1996 and 2000) in a total of 63 countries, including industrialized countries, countries in transition and developing countries. Representative samples of the population are asked about selected offences they have experienced over a given period of time. The surveys were designed in a standardized way across the different countries, (i.e., identical questionnaires were used and similar methods of sampling procedures were employed). Respondents were asked about their experiences with crime, whether or not they reported them to the police, and the reasons why they did or refrained from reporting.

Data from the latest survey were only available for the 17 industrialized countries, at the time of this study, and included close to 40,000 records from the following countries: Australia, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, England and Wales, Finland, France, Japan, The Netherlands, Northern Ireland, Poland, Portugal, Scotland, Spain (Catalonia), Sweden, Switzerland and the United States. Through the use of multivariate and non-parametric statistical analysis, this study attempted to answer the following questions:

- Does victimization experience result in greater fear of crime?
- Besides victimization, what are the other socio-demographic factors that influence the degree of fear of crime?
- How much do victimization experience and other factors affect one's fear of crime?

In the survey, four questions were included to measure various degrees of fear of crime. These include: feeling unsafe walking alone in the neighbourhood at night, feeling unsafe alone at home at night, believing that their home will likely be burglarized over the next 12 months, and trying to avoid places and people. A composite measure was developed for this study by combining responses from these 4 questions. It is termed 'fear indicator' and has a range from a minimum fear value of 0 to a maximum fear value of 10.

This summary intends to provide an excerpt of the overall results of this analysis. A more detailed report examining cross-national differences will be available

shortly through the Research and Statistics Division.

Trend Analysis

The first section provides the reader with contextual information about victimization and fear in industrialized countries through trend analysis. Overall, victimization rates in participating industrialized countries increased from 20.2% in 1989 to 24.2% in 1996, only to decrease to 21.3% in 2000. Similar patterns were found in fear of crime trend analysis. Overall, the majority of respondents felt somewhat fearful so that the majority of the weighted values were between 2 and 3, out of a maximum of 10. Fear levels increased from 2.4 in 1989 to 3.45 in 1996 (+41%), only to decrease to 2.33 in 2000 (-33%). The survey thus demonstrates an actual decrease in the fear of crime in the last few years.

Characteristics of Fear

Demographic variables selected included gender (male or female), age (16-34, 35-54, 55+), marital status (single, married, divorced, widowed), income (groups based on quartiles), town size (10,000+ or <10,000) and occupational status (employed full-time or not employed full-time). Variables on victimization experience include personal victimization and household victimization (victimized during the last year or not victimized). In terms of fear, two variables were used: the proportion feeling unsafe walking alone in the neighbourhood at night, and the fear indicator developed specifically for this study. Data used were from the 2000 cycle of the ICVS, containing 39,517 observations from respondents of 17 industrialized countries.

Chi-square tests were done in order to determine the level of association of selected socio-demographic characteristics and victimization experience with fear. The results showed that all variables were associated with ('not independent' in statistical terms) fear of crime. The level of significance for each variable was less than 0.0001. However, when the test was applied to individual countries, some of the associations were found to be not statistically significant.

Overall, one-in-six (17.5%) respondents in industrialized countries expressed moderate to high fear of crime. Overall fear of crime was highest in Switzerland (41%), Australia (26%), Poland and Portugal (23%) while fear was lowest in Scandinavian countries, such as Finland and Sweden (5% each) and Denmark (7%).

Respondents who expressed a higher level of fear of crime in the ICVS 2000 were mostly female, in older age groups, widowed or divorced, not working full time, reporting lower income categories, living in large cities, and had been victims of crime.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical technique that can define a small number of 'components' or 'factors' that represent groups of closely related variables. In the present study, the intention is to find out whether fear is objectively associated with other variables.

An overall analysis of all countries combined offered interesting results. In the component where the variable of fear indicator has significant loadings (referred to as the 'fear component'), the factor loading for fear was 0.66, meaning that this component explains 43% (square of 0.66) of the total variation of the fear variable. The variable with the next heaviest factor loading was household victimization (0.50), followed by personal victimization (0.46). The results indicate that victimization experiences were associated with the fear indicator. Besides these, only two other variables have high factor loadings: town size (0.43) and gender (0.40). In other words, even though other socio-demographic variables such as age and income were shown to be associated with fear of crime based on chi-square tests, they do not show significant association when the data are put to an objective multivariate statistical analysis.

Correlation and Regression Analysis

While most of the Pearson correlation coefficients were statistically significant, more than half of them were actually close to zero, indicating that the relationship between fear and other variables is rather weak. The strongest relationship was found between fear and gender where the overall coefficient was 0.24. Other than this, the coefficients were higher for town size (0.09), income (0.08), victimization experience (0.06 for personal victimization and 0.08 for household victimization) and occupation (-0.08).

The results of the regression analysis examine the magnitude of those relationships. The stepwise regression illustrates that the following six variables had the strongest influence on one's level of fear of crime, in the order of: gender (0.85), town size (0.35), household victimization (0.46), age (0.03), personal victimization (0.35) and married respondents (0.06). All the regression coefficients were found to be statistically significant at the 0.01 level.

Concluding Remarks

The objective of this study has been to examine if a relationship exists between victimization experience,

selected socio-demographic characteristics and fear of crime. The analysis supported some of the initial hypotheses that a relationship between selected socio-demographic characteristics as well as victimization experience and fear of crime exists. However, it should be cautioned that the available data could not be used to determine whether the relationship is causal. Furthermore, the relationship was not found to be a strong one.

As far as the victimization experience was concerned, the association with the fear of crime is significant but again not as strong as expected. It was also unexpected to see that victims of a household offence would be slightly more fearful of crime than victims of an offence against the person. This may be explained by the nature of the offence, where in many cases such as burglary and vandalism, the accused is a stranger invading a very personal domain, that is, the private residence. Consequently, once one person is a victim of a property offence, this idea of safety in their own households is somewhat shattered. Therefore, this may partially explain why household offences obtained higher correlation and regression coefficients than personal offences.

Gender was found to be the variable that has the strongest association with the fear of crime. Women are much more fearful of crime, as studies (Tulloch, 2000) and polling results (Gallup Inc, 2001) have demonstrated throughout the years. Therefore, it certainly was not surprising to obtain high correlation and regression coefficients for the gender variable in all 17 industrialized countries. However, results on the age variable, despite a statistically significant chi-square test results, were slightly surprising, as it was expected that age, or at least, older age groups would have obtained higher correlation and regression results on fear of crime, and most certainly, of fear at nightime, as was previously demonstrated by researchers and polling companies (Tulloch, 2000 and Gallup Inc., 2001). This study shows that the association is rather weak.

It was also expected that marital status would play a bigger and more significant role in one's level of fear of crime. Certainly, it was shown that 'widowed' and 'divorced' people do have a higher fear of crime but once again the association is rather weak.

City size, on the other hand, produced results that we expected as it has been demonstrated in many studies that fear is linked to spatial and geographical environment (Pain, 2000; Evans and Fletcher, 2000). It seems normal that individuals living in larger towns and cities are more fearful of crime as population density is higher and the perception of criminal opportunities greater. The media again plays an important role in these perceptions, as reports of criminal activities are mostly focussed on larger cities, thus increasing the population's fears and concerns.

Finally, occupational status and income categories do not seem to affect significantly the level of fear of crime, although unemployed or lower income level respondents would appear to be slightly more fearful than employed or higher income respondents. Certainly, a good socio-economic status gives people enough confidence to remain aware but not fearful.

These results were presented by Nathalie Quann at the first Cross-National Comparative Crime Victimization Research Workshop organized by the Nederlands Studiecentrum Criminaliteit en Rechtshandhaving (NSCR), based in Leiden, the Netherlands, on June 22-24, 2001. The objective of the workshop was to encourage cross-national and longitudinal comparative research on crime victimization using the International Crime Victimization Survey (ICVS) database. A detailed conference report will be available containing summaries of all the research presented during this three-day workshop. Additionally, contacts were made with researchers from the NSCR (www.nscr.nl), as well as researchers from the Dutch Department of Justice (http://www.minjust.nl:8080/b_organ/wodc/), the Netherlands Social and Cultural Planning Office (www.scp.nl), Statistics Netherlands (www.cbs.nl), and various universities (Leiden University at http://www.leidenuniv.nl/, Erasmus University Rotterdam at http://www.eur.nl/, University of Amsterdam at www.uva.nl). For more information on this research or various Dutch colleagues, please contact Nathalie Quann at (613) 941-4191.

Current and Upcoming Research from the Research and Statistics Division

A CONSULTATION FOR DEVELOPING AN ACTIONABLE POLICY RESEARCH FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL COHESION

Over the past 5 years, the Department of Justice Canada, Heritage Canada and the Policy Research Initiative (PRI) have been working together to advance social policy research within the federal government. Recently, these partners initiated a consultation process to inject new ideas into social cohesion research from new partners across the federal government, from within the academic community, and from community organizations. This process will be the basis for an updated and 'actionable' Social Cohesion research framework. The consultation process has been developed under the direction of Morris Rosenberg, Deputy Minister of the Department of Justice and Hélène Gosselin of the Department of Canadian Heritage

Participants in the consultation process include senior policy makers, federal researchers, external academics and non-profit research organizations and community agencies. The methodology developed for this consultation has been an iterative process based on a modified delphi model which was used to debate issues, collect the results and analyze the contributions of participants. Once the consultation is completed in the fall of 2001, the results will be compiled into an actionable research program for future Social Cohesion policy research in the federal government.

Contact: Valerie Howe, Senior Research Officer

SEMINAR SERIES

Two years ago, the Research and Statistics Division launched a seminar series within the Department of Justice. The purpose of the series is to introduce members of the justice community, as well as others, to a variety of justice-related topics that they might not otherwise explore. In addition, the series endeavours to integrate research, policy, and legal service perspectives. The presenters are drawn from a number of academic areas including sociology, philosophy, criminology, and law as well as Canadian and International government and non-government agencies.

The speaker generally has 45 minutes to present the topic, and then opens up the floor for questions and commentary. Because of the wide range of topics discussed, the interdisciplinary nature of the audience generates some very interesting discussion. Audience members come not only from within Justice itself, but from other Federal departments and academic institutions.

Thanks to the tremendous interest on the part of our audiences, we will be continuing with the series in the coming Fall and Winter 2001-2002. We are currently compiling the speakers list for the coming series and are interested in hearing from our audience. If you have any comments on seminars you have attended, or have suggestions for future seminars, please take a few minutes to fill out our on-line survey at http://canada.justice.gc.ca/en/ps/rs/rep/223i-e.html.

Contact: Karin Stein, Research Dissemination Officer

SELECTED ARTICLES ON OUTLAW MOTORCYCLE GANGS: ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

A compilation of selected academic and police-related articles dealing with outlaw motorcycle gangs is presented in this work. The articles address such issues as the growth of outlaw motorcycle gangs in Canada and the United States, as well as the general structure, illegal and legal activities, and law enforcement initiatives in this area. The bibliography captures articles published from 1990 to 2000.

The Research and Statistics Division has recently produced two other annotated bibliographies. One examines the issue of intimidation of criminal justice officials, while the other examines police immunity. These annotated bibliographies, along with the foregoing on outlaw motorcycle gangs, will be compiled with the yet to be completed annotated bibliographies on corruption of public officials, trafficking/smuggling in human beings and criminal/civil forfeiture into one working document that will be available in late Fall 2001.

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CONDITIONAL SENTENCING IN THE NORTH: AN EXAMINATION OF SERIOUS SEXUAL AND SERIOUS PHYSICAL ASSAULTS IN THE THREE TERRITORIES

A number of federal prosecutors across Northern Canada have at times expressed concern over the use of conditional sentences for cases specifically dealing with serious sexual or serious violent offences. Concerned by this claim, the Strategic Prosecution Policy Section and the Policy Centre for Victim Issues at the Department of Justice Canada have jointly asked the Research and Statistics Division to conduct exploratory research on this issue. In response, a two-phased research project has been developed. The first phase consists of an extensive review of prosecution files in the three territories for those cases of serious sexual, serious physical, serious spousal abuse, and child sexual/physical abuse. The data collected relate to the demographical characteristics of both the victim and offender, the offence history of the offender, the various types of conditions applied within the conditional sentences, and finally, as much information relating to the factors influencing the sentencing decision as possible. It is hoped that such data will be useful in substantiating the anecdotal information provided by prosecutors related to the possible over-use of conditional sentences for serious sexual and serious physical offences in the North. Phase I data was captured in the Spring of 2001 and is currently being prepared in the form of a Research Report. The second phase, planned for Fall 2001 or Winter 2002, will involve in-depth interviews of key justice system and victim services personnel in order to obtain a sense of the impact conditional sentence dispositions are having upon victims and their communities.

Contact: Michael MacDonald, Research Analyst

LEGAL AID RESEARCH INITIATIVE

At the September 2000 meeting of Ministers of Justice in Iqaluit, it was agreed that a joint collaborative program of research would be undertaken to examine the nature and extent of unmet need for legal aid in Canada. In order to put this decision into effect, the Permanent Working Group on Legal Aid established a Legal Aid Research Secretariat to oversee the development and execution of a collaborative research program involving the federal, provincial and territorial governments. The Research and Statistics Division, in partnership with the Programs Branch, is co-ordinating the activities of the Research Secretariat as well as developing and carrying-out the research. This process will assure that the program of research represents the interests of all jurisdictions. The Research Secretariat has developed a two-year program of research which has been approved by both the Permanent Working Group and the Ministers of Justice within each jurisdiction.

While the program of research is focusing primarily on the nature and extent of unmet need in criminal legal aid, there will be several projects designed to examine issues in civil and refugee/immigration legal aid. Some of the topics that are currently under investigation include:

1. Access to legal aid services in both official languages
2. Appropriate and effective legal aid services for Aboriginal people
3. Nature and extent of unrepresented accused in criminal court
4. Key stakeholder study
5. Provision of Brydges service at arrest/detention
6. Gaps in legal aid service for federally-sentenced offenders
7. Legal aid delivery in rural/isolated communities

8. Financial eligibility and coverage restriction analysis
9. Profiling of family law and poverty law legal aid services

Over the next two years, the Research Secretariat will be producing and disseminating a series of legal aid research reports that will be available from the Research and Statistics Division.

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Tina Hattem, Senior Research Officer

STATISTICAL AND ENVIRONMENTAL ANALYSIS

Statistical and Environmental Analysis covers a wide range of issues which are of concern to the Department of Justice. These include: strengthening our internal ability to provide cost-estimates research, analyzing data from adult and youth courts, impaired driving analysis, crime trend analysis, projections and profiles of drug offending, analysis of youth crime, firearms statistics, case complexity studies, and corporate surveys. Another function includes providing methodological and statistical services to customized polling surveys in relation to the information needs of policy and legal service clients within the department. In addition, there are compilations in the form of "Question and Answer" sheets relating to violence, drug use and offending, electronic commerce and young offenders.

Contacts:
Valerie Howe, Senior Research Officer
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EXPLORATORY REVIEW OF MEDIA COVERAGE ON ORGANIZED CRIME IN CANADA: 1995-2000

In a preliminary effort to examine the nature and extent of media coverage of organized crime-related activities, newspapers and magazines across Canada were reviewed for the time period 1995 to 2000. The study had two components: (1) a quantitative account of media sources for the time period 1995-2000 undertaken to identify all of the articles related to 23 pre-selected organized crime activities (e.g., drug trafficking, telemarketing fraud, trafficking/smuggling humans, money laundering, etc.) and (2) a qualitative analysis of nine media sources completed for the year 2000. Some of the key findings that emerged from this study included (i) there was a high degree of attention given by the media to a number of organized crime-related activities, (ii) media coverage emphasized traditional forms of organized crime (e.g., drugs, money laundering) as opposed to the large "organized" financial frauds and scams, (iii) the term "organized crime" was used when in fact no specific criminal activity was the subject of the coverage (particularly the case for outlaw motorcycle gangs), and (iv) different regions of Canada emphasized different activities and groups (e.g., illegal gambling in Ontario, outlaw motorcycle gangs in Quebec, and marijuana cultivation in British Columbia).

Contact: Dan Antonowicz, Research Analyst

YUKON PILOT PROJECT

The Federal Prosecution Service (FPS) of the Department of Justice has implemented a pilot project in the Yukon that employs a 'Community Liaison Officer' to work within a community and act as a liaison between the FPS and that community. Two of the central goals of this project are to:
a) increase knowledge of the criminal justice system and the role/programs/services of the Department; and,
b) improve satisfaction with the criminal justice system. In order to measure the effectiveness of this pilot project, the Research and Statistics Division conducted a survey of several communities in the Yukon to assess the current level of satisfaction with and knowledge of the criminal justice system. This survey represents the pre-test phase of a multi-year research project. The results of this survey will be compared to a post-test survey that will be administered 18 months after the implementation of the pilot project. While this survey provided the Federal Prosecution Service with a valuable benchmark for measuring the future impact of the Community Liaison Pilot Project, it was

also constructive in providing a 'snapshot' of the general perceptions of community members in the Yukon concerning the criminal justice system. A final report, which presents findings from the pre-test phase, will be available from the Division in the fall, 2001.

Contact : Jeff Latimer, Senior Research Officer

DRUG USE AND OFFENDING

A new updated version of the *Questions and Answers (Q&A) on Drug Use and Offending* will be published in the fall, following recent discussions and debates on the legalization of drug use for medical purposes. This statistical report identifies and provides statistical information on many commonly asked questions and concerns about drug offences and responses from the justice system. Data on drug use, health care, and trend analysis will also be included in this update. If you wish to view the first version of this report, please visit the Research and Statistics Divisions' website at http://canada.justice.gc.ca/en/ps/rs/rep/qa2000-2e.pdf.

Contact: Nathalie Quann, Research Analyst

DIRECTORY OF RESEARCH

The annual Directory of Research for 2001 is being released this month. This Directory, a companion piece to the Lessons Learned report, is a collection of the Research and Statistics Division research plans from each substantive area of research. The Directory is organised by these areas of research for easy reference:

- Statistical and Environmental Analysis;
- Family, Children and Youth;
- Criminal Law;
- Public Law and Access to Justice; and,
- Research Dissemination Services.

Contact : Jasmine Brown, Head, Research Dissemination Services

LESSONS LEARNED REPORT

The Research and Statistics Division is pleased to announce the launch of its first report on "lessons learned." Each year, the Division's research reports and other products and activities (seminars, symposia, workshops) provide a wealth of knowledge, innovative ideas and policy-relevant findings. This report synthesizes many valuable "lessons" we have learned from our research activities over the past two years. It captures emerging ideas, themes, findings, theories, new concepts, and insights, and points to ways to apply these learnings to research and policy.

The policy-related research themes in the report include:

- Access to Justice
- Environmental Analysis
- Building a Costing Capacity
- Family Violence
- Restorative/Community Justice
- Sentencing
- Youth Justice
- Victims
- Northern Justice Issues

The Lessons Learned report is expected to be released in Fall, 2001.

Contact : Jasmine Brown, Head, Research Dissemination Services

NEW! RESEARCH AND STATISTICS WEB SITE

The Research and Statistics Division's totally redesigned web site is now up and running. New content and design make the site interesting to use and easy to navigate. The site features hundreds of publications in on-screen text and downloadable formats. Finding a publication is now easier with a new search feature, as well as with the Browse by Title and Browse by Subject options. Learn more about the people working in the Division as well as their areas of research via the Employee Directory and Areas of Expertise Directory. The Opportunities with Us page provides information about the Division's Visiting Scholar Initiative, current employment opportunities, and job opportunities for students.

Contact: Dariusz Galczynski,
Research Dissemination Services

Current and Upcoming Research from around Government

THE CANADIAN CENTRE FOR JUSTICE STATISTICS (CCJS)

Adult Criminal Court Statistics **1999/00 (Vol. 21, No. 2)**

In 1999/2000, provincial criminal courts in the nine jurisdictions disposed of 811,000 charges or 379,000 cases which represents a 15% decrease since 1994/95. Violent crimes accounted for only 21% of all cases disposed of and the majority of these were non-sexual assaults: 12% of all cases for common assault and 6% for major assault. Property crimes accounted for 25%, other *Criminal Code* offences accounted for 29%, *Criminal Code* traffic violations accounted for 14% and other federal statute offences accounted for 12%. The majority (82%) of those tried were young males and 61% were between the ages of 18 and 34. Almost two-thirds (61%) of cases resulted in convictions, a level that has changed only slightly since 1994/95, while 33% of cases were stayed or withdrawn, 3% were acquittals, and 4% were other dispositions such as judgment of unfit to stand trial. One-third (33%) of the convicted cases were given a prison sentence, slightly lower than the 35% in the previous year but similar to the proportion reported in 1994/95. Probation was the most serious sentence in 28% of all convicted cases; fine was the most serious sentence in 32% of cases; and other sentences (such as restitution, absolute discharge, conditional discharge, suspended sentence) were handed down in 5% of cases. The median prison sentence was 30 days, lower than the median of 45 days in the previous year while the median probation sentence was one year. The median fine was $300. Median probation and fine have stayed the same since 1994/95.

Youth Court Statistics **1999/00 (Vol. 21, No. 3)**

Based on the 1s999/2000 Youth Court Survey (YCS), a total of 102,064 cases were heard in youth courts, which represents a 4% decrease from the previous year and a decrease of 11% from 1992/93. More than one-half (51%) of the young offenders in youth court were 16 or 17 years of age while males accounted for eight out of every ten youth in court. An examination of repeat offending in the report showed that approximately 35% of the cases in 1999/2000 involved repeat offenders. About 10% of repeat offenders were persistent offenders with at least three prior convictions. In 1999/2000, 41,123 property cases were heard, representing 40% of all the cases : this is almost double the number of violent cases (22%). Two-thirds of the cases heard in youth courts resulted in a guilty decision (68,186 in all) with a further 29% stayed or withdrawn and transfers to adult courts were very few in number (52 cases). Of the 68,186 cases which resulted in a guilty decision, probation was by far the most frequent disposition handed down in youth court, accounting for nearly half (48%) of the total. Both secure (17%) and open custody (17%) were the next most frequent dispositions followed by Community Service Orders (7%), Fines (6%) and Absolute Discharge (2%). Of the cases resulting in a custodial disposition, one-third (33%) received sentences of less than one month while 44% were from 1-3 months, 16% from 4-6 months and 6% over six months. Probation sentences were longer:

nearly one-quarter (22%) of the sentences were six months or less while over half (56%) were 7 to 12 months and 22% were over 12 months.

Children Witnessing Family Violence **(Vol. 21, No. 6)**

This Juristat, funded by the Research and Statistics Division of Department of Justice Canada, presents data from the 1999 General Social Survey on Victimization (GSS), the 1993 Violence Against Women Survey (VAWS), and the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth (NLSCY). It estimates the number of children in Canada who have witnessed violence in their homes in recent years, and compares the characteristics of these children and their families to children who have not witnessed violence. This analysis also examines links between witnessing violence and behavioural outcomes among children.

According to the 1999 General Social Survey on Victimization, children heard or saw one parent assaulting the other in an estimated 461,000 households, which represents 37% of all households with spousal violence in the five-year period preceding the survey. In cases where children witnessed spousal violence, they were more likely to witness assaults against their mothers (70%) than against their fathers (30%), and assaults involving mothers tended to be more serious. Over half of the female victims in these cases feared for their lives because of the violence. During the one-year period ending March 31, 2000, an estimated 57,182 women together with 39,177 children were admitted to 448 shelters across Canada, the majority fleeing violence at home. Three-quarters of these children were under 10 years of age.

According to the National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth, children who were exposed to adults or teenagers physically fighting in the home were less likely to have positive or effective interactions with their parents than other children. They were also more likely to be living in households with low family functioning and high parental depression. Witnessing family violence is also linked to negative behavioural outcomes in children. This analysis shows that children who are exposed to adults or teenagers physically fighting in the home were more likely to exhibit physical aggression, indirect aggression, emotional disorders, property offences, and hyperactivity. Although family violence crosses all socio-demographic groups, there are some circumstances where violence occurs at higher rates. Households with older children, somewhat older parents, parental unemployment, low income, blended, step or single parent families, and a recent change in family structure had higher than average percentages of children exposed to violence in the home.

Spousal Violence After Marital Separation **(Vol. 21, No. 7)**

This Juristat, funded by the Research and Statistics Division of Department of Justice Canada, presents data from the 1999 General Social Survey (GSS) on Victimization, the 1993 Violence Against Women Survey (VAWS), the Uniform Crime Reporting (UCR) Survey and the Homicide Survey. It investigates the prevalence, nature and severity of violence that occurs following the breakdown of a marital union.

Marital separation does not necessarily mark the end of a violent relationship. Forty percent of women and 32% of men with a former violent marriage or common-law relationship reported that violence occurred after the couple separated. Most of those who reported violence after separation stated that the assaults became more severe or began after separation. In 37% of cases the assaults did not increase in severity, in 24% the violence became more serious, and in 39% of cases the violence first began after the separation. Multiple occurrences of violent incidents were common particularly in cases where violence occurred after separation. Approximately 85% of women and 76% of men assaulted by an estranged partner experienced more than one incident of violence. Female victims (60%) were more likely than male victims (20%) to report being physically injured during violent encounters with their ex-partners. Overall women reported more emotional consequences from the post-separation violence experienced.

The police are more likely to become aware of violent incidents when women experience abuse after separation. Fifty-five percent of women reported having contact with the police compared with 37% if the violence ceased prior to separation. Forty-four percent of women and 50% of men reported that the violence stopped after police contact. Among those who had police contact following violence in previous relationships, the majority of both women (67%) and men (56%) were satisfied with the actions taken by police. Women were more likely to report that fear of reprisal was taken into consideration when deciding whether or not to involve the police when violence continued than when violence ended at separation (45% and 28%, respectively).

Crime Statistics 2000 **(Vol. 21, No. 8)**

The 2000 crime rate was 7,700 offences per 100,000 people or 7.7 offences per 100 persons. The rate was 1.0% lower than in 1999 and 26% lower than in 1991. Property crimes accounted for 53% of all Criminal

Code offences in 2000. Violent crimes accounted for 13% while crimes other than property and violent crimes accounted for 34%. The violent offence rate increased 2.8% in 2000, to 982 violent offences per 100,000 people. This is the first increase after seven consecutive annual decreases. Despite this latest increase, the 2000 violent crime rate was still 9% below the peak rate in 1992. There were 1.25 million property crimes in 2000 for a rate of 4.070 per 100,000 population. This rate was 4.5% lower than in 1999, 34% lower than in 1991, and was the fifth consecutive annual decrease and also the lowest rate in the last 25 years. A 3.7% increase was also reported for Other Criminal Code offences, for a rate of 2.600 per 100,000 population. However, it was still 16% lower than in 1991. Drug offence rates have also increased to 290 per 100,000 people. The 2000 rate was 9% higher than in 1999 and 42% higher than in 1991. However, it was still 5% below the peak rate in 1980. Finally, there were almost 101,000 youth charged with Criminal Code offences in 2000. The charge rate was 4,100 per 100,000 youth and it was 1% higher than in 1999, but 35% lower than in 1991 and 12% lower than the 1986 rate. This latest increase in youth charge rate was the first increase after eight consecutive annual decreases.

Upcoming releases will include a Profile of Criminal Victimization from the 1999 General Social Survey, Youth Custody and Community Services (YCCS) statistics, Maintenance Enforcement Survey data and Homicide statistics for the year 2000. For more information on these releases or any justice statistics, please contact the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics at 1-800-387-2231.

THE LAW COMMISSION OF CANADA

The Law Commission of Canada is currently engaged in a number of substantive projects with respect to questions of order and security. With a view to the changing nature of Canadian communities, the Commission is exploring the impact and implications of the emerging relationship between public and private police. As order and security functions are increasingly assumed by the private sector, the jurisdictions appropriate to each have become less clear cut. While diversification has extended regulatory reach and given communities greater control over their environments, the privatization of security arrangements may also threaten legitimacy by weakening public accountability. Through the investigations of four research teams working in different contexts across Canada, the Commission is currently examining the division of labour between public and private authorities, the definition of the activities in need of regulation and the impact of these security arrangements on basic expectations of personal security, as well as security of property and community. The research also considers the implications of these arrangements in terms of legal reform. Starting this September the Law Commission's first virtual scholar, George Rigakos of St.Mary's University, will begin the process of bringing this diverse research together into a comprehensive background paper that will guide the Commissions thinking and future initiatives in this rea. Finally, in cooperation with several otheragencies and organizations, the Commission is planning to host an International Conference on Order and Security in February 2003.

Restorative justice programs continue to be a sustained focus of communities research at the Commission. The Commission published a discussionpaper on the issue entitled 'From Restorative Justice to Transformative Justice' in 1999, and released the documentary video 'Communities and the Challenge of Conflict' in 2000. In following up on this initial phase of exploration, public education and consultation, the Commission plans to host a Safe Forum on Restorative Justice in September 2002. The forum will provide a neutral space where individuals representing a diversity of (possibly conflicting) interests can come together to discuss the issues with the hope of finding common ground. The goal of the Forum is to reframe debates about restorative justice by posing an alternate set of questions: What outcomes should a justice system strive to achieve? What values should underlie the justice system? How can the justice system provide meaningful responses to conflict? How would victims' groups measure the success of a restorative justice program? We are currently accepting bids from contractors who would conduct consultations across Canada to determine the concerns of the various stakeholder groups that will be explored in the Safe Forum. The consultations, which will involve both individual and small and large group interviews will form the basis for a background report which will be distributed to participants prior to the Forum on Justice.

Parties interested in either of these research initiatives may contact:

Dennis Cooley (dcooley@lcc.gc.ca) for further information.
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